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UNIVERSITY OF ALBERTA

DEPRESSION IN UNEMPLOYED PROFESSIONALS AND NON-PROFESSIONALS

by

LINDA JAYNE MARIE ROY

A THESIS

SUBMITTED TO THE FACULTY OF GRADUATE STUDIES AND RESEARCH IN PARTIAL FULFILLMENT OF THE REQUIREMENTS FOR THE DEGREE OF MASTER OF EDUCATION IN COUNSELLING PSYCHOLOGY

DEPARTMENT OF EDUCATIONAL PSYCHOLOGY

EDMONTON, ALBERTA

FALL, 1990

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The undersigned certify that they have read, and recommend to the Faculty of Graduate Studies and Research, for acceptance, a thesis entitled DEPRESSION IN UNEMPLOYED PROFESSIONALS AND NON-PROFESSIONALS submitted by LINDA ROY in partial fulfillment of the requirements for the degree of MASTER OF EDUCATION IN COUNSELLING PSYCHOLOGY.

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Date._____1990

Dedication

To my loving husband, François, who awoke my inner being long before we ever met.

Abstract

Differences in levels of depression were investigated for two groups of 23 to 50 year old male and female subjects (35 professionals and 48 non-professionals (based upon educational level)). Several factors which have been claimed to moderate the psychological impact of unemployment (e.g., marital status, sex, work commitment, and social support) were also examined. It was predicted that there would be a difference in the level of depression (Beck Depression Inventory (BDI)) between professionals and non-professionals, however, due to inconsistencies in the literature, the direction of this difference could not be adequately predicted. Results indicated no significant difference in BDI depression between professionals and non-professionals despite the fact that unemployed non-professionals reported having more extra time on their hands and greater financial difficulties than did unemployed professionals. Although no statistically significant difference in depression was observed between the two groups, there were differences in terms of clinical 'level of depression': compared to population means, the average BDI score for non-professionals was in the mildly depressed range, whereas professionals scored, on average, in the non-depressed category. An unexpected finding was that

marital status had a strong effect on depressive affect. Unemployed subjects who were divorced or separated had significantly higher levels of BDI depression than did those who were married or single.

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My parents, who taught me the value of education, believed in me, and encouraged me to do my best.

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CHAPTER I

INTRODUCTION

Many authors (Abbott, 1984; Hurst & Shepard, 1986; Isralowitz, 1984; Jahoda, 1981) have predicted that world-wide structural unemployment (i.e., job obsolescence and worker displacement resulting from rapid technological innovations) will continue to increase into the foreseeable future. Although unemployment has usually been associated with blue-collar work, in recent years, large numbers of professionals have also found themselves without jobs, a trend which is not expected to change (Fineman, 1987; Kaufman, 1982; May & Bobele, 1988; May & Brown-Standridge, 1988).

In spite of the prevalence of unemployment, surprisingly little research has been conducted on its psychological impact (Feather & Barber, 1983; Tiggeman & Winefield, 1984). Of the research that has been done, most has concentrated on blue-collar or non-professional unemployment, while ignoring the effects of joblessness on professionals (Fineman, 1983a; Kaufman, 1982).

Research on the psychological reaction to unemployment has generally reported it to be a negative experience for most individuals (Baum, Fleming & Reddy, 1986). What is not known, however, is whether

professionals or non-professionals are more adversely affected by joblessness. Research on the differential effects of unemployment for these two group has produced inconsistent results (O'Brien, 1986; Payne, Warr & Hartley, 1984); some say that professionals are more negatively affected by unemployment, while others claim the opposite. Due to inconsistencies in the literature, the present study examined the differential effects of unemployment on professionals and non-professionals. The specific question asked was whether professionals or non-professionals became more depressed as a result of being without work (depressive affect has been reported to be a common response to unemployment). It was hypothesized that there would be a difference between professionals and non-professionals in terms of depression, however the direction of the difference could not be determined.

Subjects were chosen from local agencies that offer career development and/or job search services. They were classified as professionals or non-professionals, depending upon their educational backgrounds. Many subjects were contacted as they walked into the offices of the participating agencies, while others were contacted through the mail. Data was collected via two short self-report questionnaires -- one designed to assess levels of depression and the other to obtain demographic

and other personal information. Various statistical procedures were utilized to analyze the data (e.g., t-tests, analysis of variance, correlations, and descriptive statistics). Lastly, the results were evaluated and implications of the findings were addressed. Limitations of the study and suggestions for future research were also included.

CHAPTER II

REVIEW OF THE LITERATURE

Psychologists did not begin studying the effects of unemployment on people until the Great Depression of the 1930s (Kaufman, 1982). Despite the increased concern about its impact on the lives of individuals and society in recent years (Isralowitz, 1984), most of the literature has focused on the economic (Fineman, 1983a; Kaufman, 1982) and political (Hayes & Nutman, 1981) aspects of unemployment. "The common tendency [is] to think of unemployed people as mere numbers -- as a more or less depressing percentage droned by the newscaster each month." (Maurer, 1979, p.1). These percentages give only a limited view of unemployment. The jobless person is seen as an anonymous statistic (Hayes & Nutman, 1981; Madonia, 1983), not as an individual facing the often traumatic experience of unemployment.

Labour analysts and economists, who have contributed the most to the unemployment literature, have virtually ignored the psychological impact of unemployment. One would assume that psychologists and sociologists would have filled this void, however, relatively few of these social scientists have researched this topic (Amundson & Borgen, 1982; Bezanson, DeCoff, & Stewart, 1985).

The majority of politicians have addressed the problem of unemployment as though it were an anomaly; a problem that given time would eventually be alleviated (Abbott, 1984) Nothing could be further from the truth. Several authors (Gold, 1984; Gordus, 1986; Kagan, 1987) have speculated that unemployment is not a temporary aberration and will in fact, continue to increase in western industrialized nations into the foreseeable future.

Defining Unemployment

Unemployment has been defined in many different ways. Crane (1980) describes unemployment as an inability to obtain paid employment at or above the minimum wage. He refers to three types of unemployment, the first of which is created by a lack of demand for labor within the economy. The second, structural unemployment, refers to a mismatch between the skills of the unemployed and the skills required for available jobs. A third type is technological which results from technological innovations in the workplace. Lastly, Bullock and Stallybrass (1983) comment on frictional unemployment which is caused by seasonal fluctuations, labour turnover and so forth.

> Statistics Canada, in its monthly labor-force survey, defines an unemployed individual as: a person who was available for work and had looked unsuccessfully during the previous four

> weeks; or a person who had not actively looked, but was laid off for 26 weeks or less and expected to return to his job; or a person who had a new job to start in four weeks or less, but who was not working during the week of the survey (Crane, 1980, p. 349).

For the purpose of this study, the unemployed individual is a person who is currently not in paid employment, but would prefer to be working.

General Findings regarding the Impact of Unemployment

Most research indicates that unemployment results in a great deal of stress and can lead to impaired emotional and physical functioning (Melville, Hope, Bennison & Barraclough, 1985; Sommer, 1984; Tanay, 1983). Relative to other psycho-social stressors such as death of a family member or chronic illness, unemployment is situated in the top quartile of approximately 60 stressful life changes on the Holmes & Rahe Scale (Isralowitz, 1984). Kaufman (1982) points out that it can have an impact comparable to the death of a spouse and an even greater impact than the breakup of a marriage or the death of someone close.

Some of the most commonly observed psychological effects of unemployment on individuals include lowered self-esteem (Cohn, 1977; Fineman, 1987; Kaufman, 1982; Snyder & Nowak, 1984; Winegardner, Simonetti & Nykodym,

1984), anxiety (Kirsh, 1983; May & Bobele, 1988; Shamir, 1986a; Warr, 1984), hopelessness (Abbott, 1984; Hayes & Nutman, 1981), lack of control (May & Brown-Standridge, 1988; O'Brien, 1986), boredom (Tiggeman & Winefield, 1984) and shame (Kaufman, 1982).

Several stress-related physical symptoms, such as insomnia (Warr & Jackson, 1984; Kirsh, 1983), fatigue, fainting, and loss of weight (Kirsh, 1983) have been found in the unemployed. Increases in urinary norepinephrines, which have been linked to work stress and chronic uncertainty, have also been evidenced (Baum et al., 1986).

The impact of unemployment is felt not only by those who lose their jobs. Unemployment also affects family members of the unemployed (Burke, 1984; Ostell & Divers, 1987). Kaufman (1982) reported that wives of middle-class jobless professionals also became depressed and suffered from loss of self-esteem as a result of their husbands' unemployment. Marital friction (Fineman, 1983a, 1987), wife battering and family violence (Kirsh, 1983) have been found to intensify as a result of joblessness. Children with unemployed fathers also experience emotional stress. They were found to have lower levels of self-esteem than children from homes where fathers were working (Coopersmith, 1967) (cited in Kaufman, 1982).

Unemployment affects members of society other than the unemployed and their families, for example, it can

affect those who are still working but must cope with uncertain layoffs (Hayes & Nutman, 1981). Rumors warning of impending cutbacks in staff are often circulated in the workplace. Employees experience a great deal of anxiety while waiting to see who will be let go next.

Unemployment and Depression

Perhaps one of the most frequently occurring emotional reactions to unemployment is depression (Feather & Bond, 1983; Shamir, 1986a). According to Beck (1967), individuals suffering from depression exhibit the following tendencies: "sadness, loneliness, apathy...self-blame,...desires to escape, hide or die,...insomnia,... [and a] change in activity level: retardation or agitation" (p.6). These symptoms have been evidenced among those who are out of work. For instance, the unemployed often withdraw from friends and activities (Abbott, 1984; Oliver & Pomicter, 1981), leaving themselves isolated and lonely (Tiggeman & Winefield, 1984). Research indicates that the unemployed often become apathetic (Feather, 1982) and are more likely to commit or attempt suicide than the general population (Kaufman, 1982).

Unemployed people tend to blame themselves for being without work (Feather & Davenport, 1981). This self-recrimination exists even in the face of massive layoffs or plant shutdowns. Although they realize that millions

of others are unemployed, they nevertheless feel responsible for their own personal situation.

Several studies have reported significantly higher levels of depression for the unemployed segment of the population relative to those who remain employed (Braithewaite & Garcia, 1985; Tiggeman & Winefield, 1984). A great deal of recent research in this area has concentrated on youth unemployment (Feather, 1982). In one study, Braithewaite and Garcia (1985) found that young people who were on a government-run work experience program (the Youth Opportunities Scheme), were as depressed as unemployed youth. Both groups were significantly more depressed than a control group of working youth. The conclusion reached by the researchers was that the work experience program was unable to provide the psychological benefits that regular employment could, such as "status, security and career prospects." (Braithewaite & Garcia, 1985, p. 72).

Tiggeman and Winefield (1984) also reported higher levels of depression for young unemployed school leavers relative to their employed counterparts. They concluded, however, that rather than the unemployed group becoming more depressed after leaving school, the working group had become more satisfied as a result of working. Their employed status was seen to have enhanced their self-esteem and to have provided them with a sense of identity.

Another research project indicated that young people became progressively more depressed with the passage of time. The more severe symptoms became evident at approximately three months after the onset of unemployment (Warr & Jackson, 1985). Feather (1982) found no significant relationship between time out of work and severity of depressive affect in his study of young unemployed individuals. In addition to higher levels of depression, the unemployed group was also found to be lower in self-esteem than a comparable group of employed individuals.

Youth research conducted by Feather and Bond (1983) indicated that depression, as measured by the Beck Depression Inventory was positively related to: 1) self-blame regarding the cause of unemployment, 2) a belief that the individual was helpless to control the situation, and 3) to lowered self-esteem.

Recent studies exploring the relationship between depression and unemployment have also been conducted with professionals (Little, 1973; Powell & Driscoll, 1973; Shamir, 1986b), blue-collar workers (Friedeman, 1986), and blacks (Dressler, 1986). Shamir's (1986b) study of unemployed professionals examined involvement in nonwork activities as a moderator variable on the psychological impact of unemployment. Results indicated that most

nonwork activities had only weak relationships to the emotional state (e.g., depression, anxiety) of the individual. He concluded, therefore that nonwork activities cannot be successfully substituted for employment, if the objective is to improve psychological well-being. In Friedeman's (1986) study of unemployed predominantly blue-collar workers, the male's level of depression was moderated by his ability to support his family financially, and the supportiveness of his wife. Dressler (1986) found that jobless individuals in a small black community experienced high levels of depression. The strength of the Protestant Work Ethic within the community was presumed to be the reason for the severe psychological impact of unemployment.

Several studies (Feather & Barber, 1983; Melville et al., 1985) utilized the Beck Depression Inventory to measure levels of depressive affect among the jobless. Results indicated that, on average, the unemployed were mildly depressed, while matched samples of employed individuals scored in the normal range (i.e., not depressed) (Feather & Bond, 1983; Braithewaite & Garcia, 1985). In addition, approximately 20% of the unemployed were clinically depressed (in other words, in need of psychiatric intervention) (Warr, 1984; Melville et al., 1985). In comparison, only six percent of those with jobs scored in this range. In summary, research on

unemployment and depression attests to the strong negative consequences of being without work.

Theoretical Explanations of

the Unemployment - Depression Link

A number of theories have been posited in an effort to explain why depression is a frequent outcome of the unemployment experience. Feather and Davenport (1981) and Hayes and Nutman (1981) utilized Expectancy-Valence theory to explain the onset of depression. It was assumed that obtaining employment is a valued objective (valence) and that if one applies for jobs, the individual anticipates that a job will be found (expectancy). However, when this course of action fails to lead to employment, he/she becomes frustrated, disappointed, and eventually depressed.

Hayes and Nutman (1981) utilized Albert Ellis' (1973) theory of irrational beliefs to explain the occurrence of depressive affect in the unemployed. According to this theory, negative emotional states such as depression are often not caused by the events themselves, but instead precipitated by the irrational beliefs that individuals hold about the way the world should be. For instance, in applying this theory to the unemployment situation, the individual who does not have a job, believes that he/she should always be totally competent (e.g., should always be employed). If the opposite is true, this indicates that

he/she is a terrible and worthless person. This thought process eventually leads the individual into a depressive state.

Another theory which purports to explain depression is Seligman's theory of learned helplessness. As Kaufman (1982) explains, when an individual experiences a loss or failure and believes that the situation is out of his/her control (that he/she is helpless), this leads to feelings of hopelessness and depression. Unemployed persons whose efforts to gain employment have been thwarted, begin to believe that they are helpless to change the situation, and therefore succumb to depressive emotions.

Stages of Unemployment

Several authors (Amundson & Borgen, 1982; Eisenberg & Lazarsfeld, 1938; Finley & Lee, 1981; Powell & Driscoll, 1973; Winegardner et al., 1984) contend that the reaction to unemployment is not static, but that the jobless individual passes through a number of phases or stages. Hopson and Adams (1976) (cited in Hayes & Nutman, 1981) formulated seven phases through which they theorized individuals pass when undergoing psycho-social transitions. Although the research was not conducted with unemployed persons per se, the phases described in the model appear to account for much of the psychological trauma that unemployed people experience. The phases are as follows:

Stage 1 - Immobilization

- state of shock
- feelings of being overwhelmed by what has happened
- difficulty understanding event

Stage 2 - Minimization

- trivializing the event as though it had never happened
- denying that changes will occur

Stage 3 - Depression

- person starts to realize that changes are necessary but is reluctant to make them
- not sure how to make changes

Stage 4 - Acceptance of Reality

- starts to see that the situation is different now and that they can no longer hold on to previous beliefs or attitudes

Stage 5 - Testing

- attempts to cope with their changed situation by engaging in new behaviors
- new behaviors are still limited by old attitudes

Stage 6 - Search for Meaning

- starts to move away from earlier restrictive viewpoints
- open their minds to new explanations for their present situation

Stage 7 - Internalization

- accepts new meanings and incorporates these into their way of looking at the world.

A second model, based on the actual experiences of the unemployed, was set forth by Eisenberg and Lazarsfeld (1938) during the Depression of the 1930s. The first stage is one of shock, followed closely by optimism, as a concerted effort is made to find alternate employment. The second stage, that of pessimism and anxiety, sets in when the individual's job search is unsuccessful. A great deal of distress is experienced during this phase. The third stage is that of fatalism, at which point the individual has resigned him/herself to the new situation.

Finley and Lee (1981), Amundson and Borgen (1982) and Winegardner et al. (1984) contend that the unemployed go through the same stages as do the terminally ill. Kubler-Ross (1969), in her renown study of terminally ill patients, discovered that the patients proceeded through a number of stages as they confronted their impending deaths. These stages included: 1) denial, 2) anger, 3) bargaining, 4) depression, and 5) acceptance.

During the first stage Amundson and Borgen (1982) noted that unemployed individuals often used denial in order to protect themselves from becoming overwhelmed by the initial shock of job loss. As time passed and it became impossible to deny the reality of unemployment,

some of the unemployed began to feel anger towards their situation. The anger was either directed inwardly at themselves or outwardly at sources such as the company which let them go or at the government for the high unemployment rate or any other available target. During the third stage of bargaining, some of the unemployed attempted to figure out ways in which to alter their situations (e.g., imagining that they could obtain another position with their former employer). Often the bargaining was unrealistic and therefore doomed to failure. As a result the jobless individual fell into the fourth stage, that of depression, during which they were often lethargic and withdrawn. Eventually the unemployed learned to accept the fact that the job was gone and that it was time to proceed on with their lives, in whatever direction that might be (e.g., job search, career change, early retirement). Although these five stages are always presented as occurring in the order given above, Bezanson et al. (1985) note that "the movement of an individual from denial/bargaining/anger/depression/acceptance is erratic and has many up and down and recycling variations." (p. 13). In other words the individual does not proceed neatly from one discrete phase into the next.

Although many researchers have utilized stage theory to account for the psychological reaction to unemployment, Warr (1984) and Fryer (1985) are not convinced that it

actually captures the experience of unemployment. In his review of stage accounts of unemployment, Fryer (1985) cautions that although the reaction to being without work may change over time, it does not necessarily occur in invariant, discrete stages. Warr (1984) states that the majority of present day researchers depend upon Eisenberg and Lazarsfeld's (1938) account of stages of unemployment during the depression of the 1930s as the basis for current stage accounts. He believes that the sources upon which Eisenberg and Lazarsfeld (1938) relied, were woefully inadequate.

Warr (1984) also raises concern over the fact that there are numerous stage theories which differ substantially from each other. Accounts proposing to explain the reaction to unemployment vary in the number of stages (e.g., two, three, four and seven stages have been postulated by various authors). The length of time necessary to pass through stages also differs (anywhere from two weeks (Finley & Lee, 1981) to over two years (Swinburne, 1981)).

In addition to the above-mentioned criticisms, Fryer (1985) states that "most of the stage accounts in the literature do not invite [an adequate] degree of investment of empirical effort: they are intuitive, poorly defined, and underspecified, and they appear to be theoretically groundless." (p. 263). In summary, although

stage theory purports to explain the impact of unemployment, several authors contend that there are good reasons for doubting its validity

Mediating Factors

The majority of unemployed individuals have been found to react negatively to being without work. There is nevertheless, great variation in the severity of reactions among the jobless (Fineman, 1983a; Kaufman, 1982; Payne & Hartley, 1987; Warr, 1984). According to Kirsh (1983) it should not be assumed "that every unemployed individual passes through a similar pattern of subjective experiences." (p. 7). Some individuals, in fact, reported positive outcomes as a result of unemployment (Fineman, 1983b; Little, 1976; Madonia, 1983; O'Brien, 1986; Warr & Jackson, 1984). The removal of occupational pressures led to improved emotional states for some (Fineman, 1983a; Little, 1976; Warr and Jackson, 1984). Others saw unemployemnt as an opportunity to examine themselves (Little, 1976; Madonia, 1983), their values (Fineman, 1983a) and their careers (Little, 1976; O'Brien, 1986) and perhaps to find new beginnings (Madonia, 1983).

The variation in response to unemployment necessitates an examination of the variables which might be responsible for the differences (Warr, 1984). These variables or 'mediating factors' have been studied by several researchers (Estes & Wilensky, 1977; Payne et al.,

1984; Jacobsen, 1987; Hepworth, 1980; Warr & Parry, 1982a; Goodchilds & Smith, 1963). The mediating factors which will be looked at in the current study include:

1. Financial
2. Social support
3. Activity levels
4. Work commitment
5. Feelings about last job/career
6. Attributional style
7. Length of unemployment
8. Age
9. Sex
10. Marital status
11. Individual differences

Financial

Research has shown that the unemployed who are financially insecure, are the most likely to fall into despair (Jacobsen, 1987; Little, 1976; O'Brien, 1986; Estes & Wilensky, 1977; Warr, 1984; Winegardner et al., 1984) and to engage in self-blame (Estes & Wilensky, 1977). A reduction in income can lead to anxiety about the availability of money for basics such as rent, food and clothing (O'Brien, 1986). As well, due to financial constraints, the unemployed often withdraw from social outings (Snyder & Nowak, 1984; Warr, 1984), club memberships (Madonia, 1983) and other potentially stress-

reducing activities. In essence, lowered financial resources results in a loss of control in deciding how people would like to live their lives (Kagan, 1987; Snyder & Nowak, 1984).

Social Support

A second factor which may affect the psychological reaction to unemployment is social support (Baum et al., 1986; Estes, 1973; Warr, 1984). Informal support from family and friends, as well as formal support from helping agencies have been found to cushion the impact of stress (Kirsh, 1983; Mallinckrodt & Fretz, 1988).

Madonia (1983) found that social support helped the unemployed in dealing with stress. However, it also caused them alarm, since relying on others made them reflect on their own nonproductiveness. This might explain why 74 % of the respondents reported spending more time alone since becoming unemployed and 67% felt more irritable when relating with others (especially with family members and others who offered support). Despite the problems in their relationships, those who had family and friends to rely upon were better able to cope than were those without such resources. Other studies have also found that the unemployed spent a great deal of time in social isolation (Kirsh,1983).

Activity Levels

A third factor, level of personal activity, has also been shown to moderate the psychological impact of unemployment (Kirsh, 1983; Little, 1976; Warr, 1984). In Warr's (1984) study, many of the unemployed engaged in passive activities such as watching television, listening to the radio, and wandering around shops with no intention of buying. It is not uncommon, Warr states, for the jobless to report boredom, low levels of activity, and problems finding things to do. Hepworth (1980) states that unemployed individuals who are able to fill up their time with meaningful activities are less distressed than those who are unable to do so.

On the other hand, Shamir (1986b) found no reduction in certain nonwork activities among his sample of highly educated unemployed. These activities included home, garden and automobile repairs, reading, sports, child care and other hobbies. Although a positive correlation was found between levels of activity and psychological well-being, this relationship was weak and gave no indication of direction of causality. Despite the positive impact of keeping oneself occupied while jobless, Shamir (1986b) contends that nonwork activities cannot readily act as a substitute for employment. Furthermore, nonwork activities are most helpful to those with a strong Protestant Work Ethic.

Work Commitment

Results of several studies (Banks, Clegg, & Jackson, 1980; Fineman, 1979; Shamir, 1986a; Warr, Banks & Ullah, 1985; Warr & Parry, 1982b) indicate that individuals who have greater levels of work commitment or work involvement suffer greater psychological ill-health than do those who have lower work commitment. Work involvement is defined by Shamir (1986a) as "the extent to which a person finds work attractive and fulfilling in a personal sense" (p. 25). Although work involvement appears to have a moderating effect on the psychological distress experienced by the unemployed, Shamir (1986a) believes that its role is limited, and that other factors may have a greater effect.

Feelings about Last Job/Career

A number of researchers (Fineman, 1983a; Hepworth, 1980; Kaufman, 1982) state that the unemployed persons' feelings about their last job and about their career choice in general may mediate how they experience unemployment. Those who are unhappy with their careers, feel extremely high levels of stress during unemployment (Kaufman, 1982) In seeking reemployment they face the conflict of whether to remain in the same field or to change to a new one. Levels of stress are significantly reduced if they decide to embark upon a new career.

The way in which individuals left their last jobs may also act as a mediating variable, although not all researchers agree on the importance of this variable. Hepworth (1980) states that those who leave employment voluntarily as well as those who are fired, typically have more negative reactions than those who left in other ways (e.g., layoff, termination of contract). On the other hand, Fineman (1983a) believes that the way in which people become unemployed is insignificant in terms of their overall reaction to being without work.

Attributional Style

Another feature which might moderate the impact of unemployment is "the attributed cause of one's unemployment" (Warr, 1984). Those who blamed themselves and saw their personal inadequacies as the reason for their unemployment, had higher depression scores on the Beck Depression Inventory (Feather & Barber, 1983) and poorer mental health on the General Health Questionnaire (Ostell & Divers, 1987) than did those who looked to external causes such as a bad economy (Feather & Barber, 1983). Those who were unemployed for longer periods were more likely to use internal attributions as a reason for being without work. Although Feather and Barber found increased levels of depression in the individuals who internalized blame it was also noted that the "attributional variables accounted for only a relatively

small proportion of the variance in ... BDI [Beck Depression Inventory] depression among our unemployed subjects" (p. 193). A possible explanation might be that even those who knew the job loss was not their fault, nevertheless engaged in self-degradation (Madonia, 1983). Most unemployed professionals have been found to blame external causes for their joblessness (Estes, 1973; Little, 1973) as a way of reducing feelings of guilt, depression and shame (Kaufman, 1982).

Other possible mediating factors include length of unemployment (Feather, 1982; Marsden & Duff, 1975; Warr & Jackson, 1985), age (Hepworth, 1980; Kaufman, 1982; Little, 1976), sex (Banks et al., 1980) and marital status (Kaufman, 1982). The findings related to these variables, have been inconsistent and contradictory.

Length of Unemployment

In several cross-sectional studies (Feather & Davenport, 1981; Goodchilds & Smith, 1963; Little, 1976; Warr, Jackson & Banks, 1982) and one longitudinal investigation (Fineman, 1983a), length of time without work was not found to moderate the psychological impact of unemployment. In contrast, other research has found lower self-esteem (Feather, 1982), increased anxiety (Hepworth, 1980), and higher levels of depression (Marsden & Duff, 1975; Warr et al., 1982) as length of unemployment increased. A positive relationship between time out of

work and severity of depressive affect was also noted in Feather's (1982) study of young unemployed individuals, although the correlation was not statistically significant. In his sample of jobless professionals, Estes (1973) noted that stress levels were fairly high during the first three months of unemployment, dropped between seven and nine months and then rose again for the period of one to two years.

Age

It appears as though age may also have a moderating effect on the severity of depression experienced by the unemployed. Warr and Jackson (1984) reported that the psychological distress of unemployed male youth was significantly lower than that experienced by a group of middle-aged men. This finding is in accordance with Kaufman's (1982) and Este's (1973) findings that the segment of the population which experiences the greatest amount of distress as a result of unemployment are men in their 30s. Although those older than 40 did not experience as much stress as the 30 to 39 age group, nevertheless 50 percent of them were severely affected by joblessness (Kaufman, 1982). Hepworth (1980) found that those without work between the ages of 35 and 44 had the highest levels of distress. In essence, the unemployed in their 30s and 40s seemed to react most negatively. Typically, adults in these age groups have the largest

financial responsibilities (O'Brien, 1986) as they often have major expenses relating to their homes and raising of families.

Fineman (1983a) found that age did not appear to make a difference in his study of unemployed managers. However, the majority of his sample were in the 30 to 50 age range, supposedly the segment that is most impacted by joblessness. Since subjects from different age groups were not included, it was impossible to obtain a complete picture of age as a mediating factor. Banks et al. (1980) and Goodchilds and Smith (1963) also found no evidence that age significantly moderated unemployment stress.

Sex

There is limited knowledge concerning the differential impact of unemployment on men and women. A partial explanation for this lack of information may be that few studies have examined the reaction of women to being without work (Snyder & Nowak, 1984). This scarcity of information has limited the extent to which comparative studies could have been done.

Contradictory results have been found in the few studies that have examined sex differences in the reaction to unemployment. In their study of a plant shutdown, Snyder and Nowak (1984) reported higher levels of stress for women than for men. In contrast, Estes (1973) found that unemployed male professionals were more

distressed than their female counterparts. Schlozman (cited in Snyder & Nowak, 1984) and Banks et al. (1980) reported no significant differences between the two sexes.

Marital Status

Marital status may mediate the psychological impact of unemployment, although findings in this area are also discrepant. In Kaufman's (1982) study of unemployed male professionals, those who were married reported higher levels of social support and lower levels of stress than those who were single. Exceptions to this were the unemployed married males who had dependent children. In spite of the added social support derived from their marital status, these men exhibited far greater levels of stress than those who were single.

Contrary to Kaufman's (1982) contention of higher social support for the married group, Madonia (1983) found that social support from family members was usually of a fairly short duration. As the unemployment dragged on, and with no solutions in sight, "relationships became strained, non-supportive and disruptive" (p. 485). Previously existing problems became more pronounced. Such familial disruption would, in all likelihood, result in greater levels of dissatisfaction for those experiencing it.

One potential advantage of being married is the financial support provided by a working spouse (Snyder &

Nowak, 1984). Many of the single unemployed, however, have also been able to cushion the impact of financial loss by residing with parents or receiving financial assistance. In contrast with the above-mentioned results, marital status was not found to significantly moderate the psychological reaction to unemployment in studies by Goodchilds and Smith (1963) and Melville et al. (1985).

Due to inconsistent findings regarding length of unemployment, age, sex, and marital status, it is impossible to conclude whether or not these variables actually do moderate the psychological impact of unemployment.

Individual Differences

Lastly, individual differences have also been found to moderate the psychological effects of unemployment. Fineman (1983a) and Shamir (1986a) reported that people who were typically self-confident suffered less as a result of being without work than did those who had characteristically lower levels of self-esteem. Certain individuals who are more vulnerable to anxiety (Fineman, 1983a) and depression (Warr, 1984) would also be expected to have higher levels of distress than others during unemployment, although this possibility has yet to be investigated.

The Differential Effects of Unemployment on Professionals and Non-professionals

Although unemployment spans across all occupational sectors (Kaufman, 1982), the majority of research in this area has focused on groups other than professionals (Fineman, 1983a; Kaufman, 1982; Powell & Driscoll, 1973). A possible explanation for this is the typically lower rates of unemployment among professionals relative to their non-professional counterparts (Fineman, 1983a). At one time, being a professional virtually insured one of having a secure, stable career. Since the 1970s, however, this is no longer the case (May & Brown-Strandridge, 1988). Fineman (1987) and May and Brown-Standridge report that in most nations of the world, the supply of college-educated individuals far outnumbers the demand. As a result, unemployment among professionals has become a more common occurrence (Kirsh, 1983; Jacobsen, 1978).

Kaufman (1982) defines the term professional as "occupations requiring a base of knowledge and skills acquired through higher education and subsequent experience" (p. 16). The terms 'middle-class', 'white-collar' and 'managerial', although not identical to the term 'professional', have also been used to describe those of higher socioeconomic status. On the other end of

the scale are those classified as 'non-professional', 'blue-collar', and 'working class'.

Of the limited research that has been conducted on professional unemployment, there is a controversy as to whether or not professionals are more adversely affected by unemployment than are non-professionals. There appears to be a consensus that those from different socioeconomic classes do vary in their response to joblessness, however the nature of this variation remains unclear (Kirsh, 1983).

Work Commitment

Work involvement and commitment are said to be higher for professionals than for others (Elder, 1974; Fineman, 1983a, 1987; Harpaz, 1985; Kaufman, 1982). Kaufman (1982) noted that professionals are the only group that view work to be more important than leisure. Morse & Weiss (1955) (cited in Cohn, 1977) found further evidence of the centrality of work for professionals in his study of 400 employed men. Subjects were asked if they would continue to work even if they inherited enough money to live comfortably without a job. Eighty percent of the sample stated that they would continue to work under such circumstances, however more white-collar than blue-collar workers responded in this manner. A substantial number of individuals from the white-collar group gave responses such as "being interested in their jobs" or "having

feelings of accomplishment" as reasons for wanting to continue working. In contrast, relatively few of the manual workers gave such responses. They were more likely to continue in their jobs in order "to stay occupied".

Jacobsen (1978) examined levels of work commitment for three groups of blue-collar workers -- the skilled, semi-skilled and unskilled. It was speculated that the skilled workers would have an intrinsic work orientation, much like that of the professionals. As well, because of their identification with their jobs, these skilled blue-collar individuals would be expected to react negatively to unemployment. Semi-skilled workers were also seen as being attached to their jobs. However, it was the relationship with co-workers that was most important to them, rather than any specific properties of their work. These individuals were also expected to see unemployment as stressful, particularly with the existence of financial difficulties added on. The tasks of unskilled workers are often degrading and unchallenging. As a result, the unskilled were not seen as having especially high levels of commitment to work. The only meaning that work has for these individuals would be in terms of the financial aspect. As long as their economic needs were met, unemployment would not be expected to cause very much stress for this group.

Intrinsic Satisfaction

Other researchers (Baum et al., 1986; Elder, 1974; Kaufman, 1982) have also noted that professionals have higher needs for, and do in fact, obtain more intrinsic satisfaction from their jobs than do other workers. Results of a study on the mental health of American workers indicated that "80 percent of professionals and 68 percent of managers [derived] ego satisfaction from their work as compared to only 39 percent of clerical workers and 29 percent among the unskilled" (Gurin, Veroff & Feld, 1960) (quoted in Kaufman, 1982, p. 22). Since individuals who desire challenging, interesting work report higher levels of stress during unemployment (Oliver & Pomicter, 1981), professionals can be expected to react more negatively than would those from other occupational groups.

In contrast with the image of the professional enjoying fascinating, challenging work, Fineman (1983a) and Little (1976) found evidence that many professionals are, in fact, extremely unhappy and disillusioned with their jobs. Moore & Renck (1955) (cited in Little, 1976) report that "professional employees tend to be chronically frustrated and dissatisfied and industrial scientists and engineers were only slightly more satisfied than factory production workers and were less satisfied than foremen, salesmen, skilled workers, and management." (p. 266).

Little (1976) suggests that the positive attitudes of some out-of-work professionals may be a reflection of feeling trapped in unsatisfactory jobs prior to unemployment.

Fineman (1983a) points out that attachment to work varies as much among blue-collar personnel as it does among white-collar workers and professionals. Blue-collar work may not provide the same level of intrinsic satisfaction that higher level jobs can, however "it still provides the essential social, psychological, and economic framework for survival in our culture" (Fineman, 1983a, p. 12).

Identity

As a result of professionals' high need to derive intrinsic satisfaction from their jobs, Kaufman (1982) suggests that professionals are more likely than non-professionals to obtain their identities from their work. Hence, if their self-concept is to a large extent based on their jobs it is reasonable to expect that loss of employment would be more detrimental to their sense of self-worth than for those who depend less on employment in order to define themselves.

Fineman (1983a) and Estes and Wilensky (1977) suggest that the professionals' identification with work may, in fact, facilitate their coping with unemployment, rather than acting as a hindrance. High status workers are said to retain their professional identity despite being

without work (Fineman, 1983a). This identity which is associated with a prestigious occupation continues to command respect and helps sustain the morale, especially in the case of the older unemployed professional (Estes & Wilensky, 1977).

Madonia (1983) states that professionals are not the only ones whose identities are entwined with their work. He discovered that unemployed white and blue-collar individuals who had long work histories, were crushed by the news of job loss. Their identities were very much tied up with their jobs and with the companies that employed them.

Status

In our society, professional occupations are associated with higher levels of status and prestige than are other occupations (Fineman, 1987). As a result, unemployment for professionals means a significant loss in status (Cavan, 1959; Fineman, 1983a) which can lead to feelings of shame and humiliation (Fineman, 1987). The status of being unemployed is greatly inferior to the status of being a working professional. This creates a conflict within jobless professionals. They are accustomed to seeing themselves as members of the social elite and yet being unemployed relegates them to a lower social position. This 'status inconsistency' leaves

professionals feeling depressed (Kaufman, 1982), anxious and hostile (Elder, 1974).

According to Bakke (1940) in his study of unemployment during the Depression era, professionals were not the only ones who suffered as a result of status inconsistency. Blue-collar workers who had fairly high standards of living prior to being unemployed and who saw themselves as 'high-class', found it very difficult to cope with their lowered standard of living following job loss.

The high status associated with professional occupations has also been found to cushion the impact of unemployment (Little, 1976). During the recession of the 1970s when many technical professionals lost their jobs due to cutbacks in the Aerospace industry, special agencies were set up to help than deal with joblessness (Little, 1976). Although the rate of professional unemployment was still low relative to the non-professional rate, these out-of-work professionals were given special media coverage regarding their situation. Thus, the message was conveyed that they were not to blame for their situation, and as a result they were less likely to suffer distress resulting from internalized blame. The unemployed professionals were constantly reminded that they were special; they were not just 'ordinary' unemployed persons.

Stigma

Many professionals are concerned about the stigma of being unemployed (Fineman, 1983a, b; Kaufman, 1982; Little, 1976). Fineman (1983a) states that jobless managers may be viewed as less competent than those who continue working. Furthermore, there is a tendency for people in Western society to think of the unemployed as "abnormal or deviant" (Hartley, 1980a, p. 12). As a result of the stigmatizing effect of unemployment, professionals have a tendency to isolate themselves (Elder, 1974; Kaufman, 1982; Little, 1976) in order to protect their self-esteem (Kaufman, 1982).

As a result of cultural changes which have taken place in our society, Little (1976) suggests that there may be less stigma attached to being unemployed (regardless of occupation) at the present time relative to earlier days. He believes that the Protestant Work Ethic may not be as strong as it was during the Depression of the 1930s. Furthermore, with the "increasing institutionalization of leisure, enforced leisure may not be very punishing if basic financial needs can be met" (Little, 1976, p. 272).

Loss

Research emanating from the Great Depression of the 1930s indicates that families of higher social standing experienced greater levels of unemployment stress than did

those from the lower strata (Bakke, 1940; Elder, 1974). It was reasoned that high status individuals had more to lose than others. They were accustomed to a higher standard of living and relatively secure (Fineman, 1983a; O'Brien, 1986), well-paying jobs (O'Brien, 1986). On the other hand individuals from the lower social classes who did not have such high expectations (O'Brien, 1986) and were more used to experiencing difficult times (Eisenberg & Lazarsfeld, 1938; Elder, 1974), were not as traumatized by unemployment as those from the higher echelons (Cavan, 1959; O'Brien, 1986). More recently, large numbers of high status families have also experienced significant losses resulting from unemployment (Elder, 1974).

It has also been argued that those who are already disadvantaged (e.g., lower social status individuals) become especially distressed as a result of unemployment (Cohn, 1977; Eisenberg & Lazarsfeld, 1938; Hepworth, 1980; Warheit, 1979). Since they are already exposed to more of life's stresses than others (Kessler & Cleary, 1980; Hepworth, 1980), they are the least able to deal with additional difficulties (Hepworth, 1980) such as unemployment. Furthermore, Kessler and Cleary state that low status individuals have stronger reactions to negative events than do those from the higher classes, even when the events are prevalent in both groups. This difference in response to stress is said to account for the positive

relationship between mental health and social class. Research indicates that those from the lower socioeconomic strata have a higher prevalence of mental illness (Cohn, 1977), lower levels of self-worth, fewer financial resources, and an external locus of control (Kessler & Cleary, 1980; O'Brien, 1986). Financial difficulties, in particular, have been shown to exacerbate the effects of unemployment (Dressler, 1986; Jacobsen, 1987; Little; 1976). Since those from the lower socioeconomic strata are most likely to experience financial problems, it follows that they will be the most affected by joblessness.

Internalization of Blame

Professionals are more likely than others to internalize blame for being unemployed (Giudicelli, 1982; Jacobsen, 1978; Kirsh, 1983; Little, 1973). In Giudicelli's (1982) study, unemployed white collar workers and executives were found to be more severely depressed than a group of lower status workers. The professionals were more likely than the non-professionals to engage in self-blame and to feel guilty about being without work.

Social Support

Differences in social support have been noted for professionals and non-professionals. Atkinson, Liem and Liem (1986) reported that both white-collar and blue-collar workers who lost their jobs had reduced social

contacts relative to when they were employed. However, the unemployed blue-collar workers received more social support and were more likely to keep in contact with their social networks than were those from the white-collar group. This provides support for Kaufman's (1982) contention that jobless professionals often tend to isolate themselves.

The reluctance of professionals to seek psychological assistance also contributes to their lower levels of social support. Since many professionals see themselves as self-sufficient and able to deal effectively with problems, seeking help would be inconsistent with this self-image (May & Brown-Standridge, 1988). Due to pride and despite their suffering, professionals often refuse the very assistance which would make it easier to cope.

Professionals may in some instances, receive higher levels of social support than non-professionals (Fineman, 1987; Atkinson et al., 1986). In one study (Atkinson et al., 1986) support was found to decline much sooner for blue-collar workers than it did for the white-collar group. The researchers were unable to account for this difference. Similar results were noted in Fineman's (1987) study -- white-collar individuals were more likely to report improved marriages than were those from the lower classes.

Education

Level of educational attainment has been found to affect the reaction to unemployment. The higher the level of education, the more severe will be the stress (Kaufman, 1982; O'Brien, 1986). In Kaufman's (1982) study of professionals, two-thirds of the unemployed who had at least a Master's degree experienced extreme levels of stress compared to only 28 percent of those without graduate level work. The most severely distressed individuals were those with doctoral degrees.

Kaufman (1982) offered two explanations for the positive relationship between educational level and reaction to being without work. First, he explained that those with the highest levels of education have also invested the most in their careers. They have contributed large amounts of time, energy and money in order to advance themselves. In return for this significant investment they expect certain rewards, for example, employment in their chosen fields. Secondly, Kaufman (1982) believes that the highly educated derive more of their identity and ego satisfaction from work than do those who are less educated. Therefore job loss would leave the highly educated feeling "deprived of an essential part of their very identity" (Kaufman, 1982, p. 75).

In contrast with Kaufman's (1982) findings, higher levels of educational attainment have also been seen to facilitate the adjustment to unemployment (Feather & Bond, 1983; Hartley, 1980a; Little, 1976). O'Brien (1986) reports that during the Depression era, those with higher skill levels were less likely to feel insecure about finding jobs than were the unskilled. This may have related to the greater latitude that the highly educated possess when looking for work (Little, 1976; Kirsh, 1983). Also, certain skills such as the ability to problem-solve (Elder, 1974), structure time, and act autonomously (Feather & Bond et al., 1983) and assertively (Hartley, 1980a) may, in fact, enhance the unemployed professionals' ability to engage in job search.

Length of Unemployment

Length of unemployment has been found to have a different effect on professionals than on non-professionals (Hartley, 1980b). Goodchilds and Smith (1963) reported that low social status subjects increased in self-confidence the longer they had been unemployed. The opposite was found for high status individuals who became less self-assured as length of unemployment increased. Although this study was cross-sectional in nature the results suggest that social class should not be ignored when examining length of unemployment as a mediator of the psychological impact of joblessness.

Self-Esteem

Previous research has indicated that self-esteem is negatively affected by unemployment (O'Brien, 1986). Elder (1974) reported lower levels of self-esteem for both working and middle-class unemployed men during the Depression era. Lowered self-esteem was attributed to these mens' loss of status and power in their families as a result of no longer being the major financial contributors. Cohn (1978) also reported lower levels of self-confidence for both blue and white collar unemployed groups. However, only the blue-collar workers were found to have declined in 'satisfaction with self'.

Other studies have failed to confirm a loss of self-esteem as a result of unemployment (Gurney, 1980; Hartley, 1980b; Shamir, 1986c). Gurney reported no decrease in self-esteem among a group of unemployed school leavers. In another study, of unemployed managers, Hartley (1980b) also found no decrease in self-esteem, even as length of unemployment increased. Similarly, Shamir (1986c) noted that unemployment did not affect the self-confidence of a group of highly educated individuals. What he did discover was, in fact, the opposite -- that the level of self-esteem moderated the reaction to unemployment. Individuals with low self-esteem were more sensitive to a change in employment status than were those with high self-esteem.

Unemployment Rate

Catalano and Dooley (1983) examined the relationship between a changing unemployment rate and the likelihood of experiencing a negative work-related or financial event. The sample was divided into three groups according to socioeconomic status (SES) (high, medium and low). SES levels were calculated by using a combination of education and occupation.

Middle status subjects reported more negative work-related or financial events as the unemployment rate increased. In contrast, high status subjects experienced fewer such events as the unemployment rate rose. For low status individuals, the unemployment rate had no bearing on the number of undesirable work or financial events.

A possible explanation for these results pertains to the middle status persons' dependence on jobs to provide the bulk of their income (Catalano & Dooley, 1983). During periods of high unemployment when jobs are more scarce, there is a higher possibility that middle status persons would encounter job or financial problems. High status individuals, on the other hand, would probably depend more on sources such as investment income for their wealth, rather than relying solely on income from work. This would leave them less vulnerable to ups and downs in the unemployment rate. Members of the lower classes may experience more negative job and financial events than

others since their lower skill levels render them less valuable on the job market, regardless of the unemployment rate.

Activity Levels

Levels of activity among the unemployed have been found to vary depending on social class. Several researchers (Hepworth, 1980; Little, 1976; Tanay, 1983) reported that professionals engaged in more activities during unemployment than did non-professionals. Nearly 50 percent of the jobless professionals in Little's (1976) study stated that they had no problems with idleness. Similarly, many unemployed managers in Swinburne's (1981) study, actively sought to keep busy in order to alleviate the negative effects of idleness. Since inactivity has been linked to higher stress levels during unemployment, professionals might be expected to respond less negatively than non-professionals.

Studies using Social Class as a Moderator Variable

A number of studies have found no significant differences in reaction to unemployment when social class was used as a moderating variable (Goodchilds & Smith, 1963; Payne & Hartley, 1987; Payne, et al., 1984; Warr, 1984). Payne et al. (1984) compared the psychological impact of unemployment on unskilled and semi-skilled workers with the effect on white-collar, managerial, and professional workers. Results indicated that both groups

exhibited low levels of emotional health and that there was no significant difference between the two. Similar levels of mental health were found despite the fact that the working class group reported greater financial strains and more difficulties in occupying time. No major discrepancy was reported in terms of work commitment. Since mental health is typically lower in working-class employed samples than it is in employed middle-class groups (Kessler & Cleary, 1980), Payne et al. (1984) concluded that "medium-term unemployment homogenizes experience for two social groups whose everyday lives are otherwise quite different. Unemployment appears to cause these differences to disappear" (p.171).

It was hypothesized that since most of the subjects in the study were in the 25 to 39 year age group, and were married with dependent children (e.g., had substantial financial responsibilities), the psychological impact was severe enough to obliterate any social-class differences that might otherwise exist. Another possible explanation for these findings was that the professional group was comprised of workers who may not have been 'professional' in the true sense of the word. White-collar workers and managers do not necessarily have the advanced education and training that professionals as defined by Kaufman (1982) have. This may also help to explain the similar levels of work commitment found across the two groups.

Payne and Hartley (1987) also reported no significant differences in emotional health between the middle and working-class unemployed. There was, in fact, much greater variation in psychological well-being within groups rather than between the two groups. Despite the similarities in mental health for the two classes, a number of differences were also apparent. In comparison with the middle-class group, and in accordance with other research, the working-class respondents reported greater financial difficulties. They were also more likely to have experienced more bouts of unemployment, had more frequent job changes, and were more likely to have worked in jobs that were not in their regular line of work.

People from different socioeconomic backgrounds have been found to respond in similar ways when confronted with financial difficulties (Kessler & Cleary, 1980; O'Brien, 1986). In their study of upper, middle, and lower class individuals, Kessler and Cleary reported similar levels of depression and anxiety among subjects regardless of social status. These results were unexpected since it was assumed that individuals with varying "access to broader financial resources" (Kessler & Cleary, 1980) would react differently when faced with financial problems.

Bakke (1940) also reported similar reactions to financial difficulties among different social classes. For both skilled and unskilled unemployed men, economic

problems were the main reason for declines in mental health. This was despite the fact that skilled men had also lost opportunities for autonomy and accomplishment.

Financial status also had a bearing on the well-being of a group of unemployed technical professionals. In a study renown for the high percentage (48%) of individuals reporting unemployment as a positive experience (Little, 1976), it was found that 49% of these men had no more financial concerns than when they had been employed. In all likelihood, the absence of economic difficulties contributed to the positive attitudes they were able to maintain while without work.

The Meaning of Work

One way to appreciate the often debilitating effects of being jobless, is to explore the meaning of work. Our society is based on the Protestant Work Ethic (Kirsh, 1983; Levi, Brenner & Hall, 1984), in that work is viewed as a moral obligation. "There are strong beliefs concerning delays in personal gratification, conscientiousness and hard work as the way to salvation and material success" (Levi et al., 1984, p. 19). Despite the sociocultural importance of work, and compared with other areas in the behavioral sciences, work has been virtually ignored as a subject of study until recently (Isralowitz, 1984; Tanay, 1983).

Alfred Marshall (1890) (quoted in Jahoda, 1981) defined work as "an exertion of mind or body undergone partly or wholly with a view to some good other than the pleasure derived directly from work" (p. 187). Jahoda (1981) believes that this definition from the late 19th century still holds true at the present time, and that it applies to either paid or unpaid work.

Technological advances and higher levels of education in industrialized nations have, in all likelihood, influenced the meaning and importance of work (Levitan & Johnson, 1982). Work is an acceptable means for satisfying a variety of biological and psychosocial needs (Tanay, 1983). In addition to providing an income (Jahoda, 1981; Kirsh, 1983; Warr, 1984), several other needs can be met through employment. These include "time structure, social contacts, the experience of social purposes, status and identity, and regular activity" (Jahoda, 1981, p. 18).

Time Structure

Employment assists people in structuring time. It regulates what time they get up in the morning, length of time away from home, and what activities they engage in during the day (Hayes & Nutman, 1981). It also provides a means for differentiating working days from non-working days (e.g., vacations and weekends).

Social Contact

Work, for many, is a major source of contact with people outside the family (Hayes & Nutman, 1981). Those without jobs often become socially isolated (Hayes & Nutman, 1981), which in turn can lead to feelings of despair and even to suicide (Shepherd & Barraclough, 1979).

Purpose in Life

All humans need to have a sense of purpose and meaning in their lives in order to feel enthusiastic and alive (Bezanson et al., 1985). Employment can be one way of providing meaning (Fineman, 1983a) and purpose (Hayes & Nutman, 1981). Regardless of occupation the working individual feels needed and useful as a contributing member of society (Hayes & Nutman, 1981; Marsden & Duff, 1975). As well, Maslow (1968) believes that work can fulfill needs for safety, belonging, self-esteem and self-actualization.

Status

In our culture, work is a major source of status (Hayes and Nutman, 1981; Eisenberg and Lazarsfeld, 1938) and identity (Hayes & Nutman, 1981; Fineman, 1983a, b; Feather, 1982). In addition to the acquisition of an occupational identity and the fulfillment of individual needs for time structuring, social involvement and purposeful activity, work has a status of its own. The

actual condition of having a job confers a degree of status or dignity; the individual is seen as a self-sufficient and productive member of society.

Activity

Humans possess a psychological, social and biological need to be active (Tanay, 1983). Tanay (1983) explains that activity and stress lead to the production of bodily chemicals such as endorphins and steroids. These substances affect our sense of well-being. As activity levels cease, less of these chemicals are produced and as a result mood may be negatively affected. For many individuals, work fulfills the need to remain active (Hayes & Nutman, 1981; Tanay, 1983) and helps alleviate conditions of boredom and idleness.

In summary, work is highly valued in our society. It helps fulfill a variety of human needs and thus far, no acceptable substitute has been discovered (Abbott, 1984; Fineman, 1983b; Shamir, 1986b).

Purpose and Rationale

The purpose of this research is to determine whether or not professionals react differently to the unemployment situation than do non-professionals. Since research in this area has produced inconsistent results, and since professional unemployment may be an increasing phenomenon (Kaufman, 1982), further exploration appears to be required in order to facilitate improved understanding of

the problem. Based upon the research reviewed, it is hypothesized that unemployed professionals will experience levels of depression different from those of non-professionals. As a result of inconsistencies within the literature, the direction of this difference cannot be adequately predicted. In addition to this main hypothesis, various mediating factors will be examined in order to ascertain the possible impact they might have on unemployed professionals and non-professionals.

CHAPTER III

METHOD

Subjects

Of the 83 subjects who participated in this study, 35 were classified as professional (23 males and 12 females) and 48 as non-professional (22 males and 26 females). In order to be designated a professional, subjects were required to have completed at least one undergraduate degree. Non-professional subjects were all other individuals, with a particular emphasis on those who had lower levels of education (in order to maximize educational differences between the two groups). Originally, the non-professionals had been defined as those with no higher than high school completion. However, due to time constraints, the qualifying criteria were changed to include individuals with college and/or technical school diplomas, but not university degrees. Characteristics of the sample, including educational levels are shown in Table 1.

Subjects had been asked to give the occupational title of their last job and of their "usual" occupation (occupation in which they had spent most of their working lives). These titles were classified into four digit codes according to the occupational coding system in the

Table 1

Demographic Charactistics of Professionals (Prof) (n=35) and Non-Professionals (NProf) (n=48)

Characteristic	Prof		NProf	
	%	n	%	n
Education Level				
Less than High School	--	--	34	16
High School Diploma	--	--	29	14
Trade/Technical School	--	--	23	11
College Diploma	--	--	14	7
University Degree	100	35	--	--
Age (Years)				
Less than 26	14	5	4	2
26 - 30	17	6	39	19
31 - 35	23	8	17	8
36 - 40	20	7	15	7
41 - 45	20	7	15	7
46 - 50	6	2	10	5
Marital Status				
Married/Common-law	54	19	44	21
Widowed	--	--	--	--
Divorced/Separated	3	1	31	15
Never Married	43	15	25	12
Sex				
Males	66	23	46	22
Females	34	12	54	26
Dependent Children				
Yes	37	13	48	23
No	63	22	52	25

Canadian Classification and Dictionary of Occupations (CCDO) (Department of Manpower & Immigration, 1971). Once all occupations had been coded they were then broken down by socioeconomic category (Pineo, 1984). The percentage distribution of the subjects' occupations by socioeconomic category is shown in Table 2.

Controls for possible extraneous effects of age and length of unemployment were included. Subjects had been without work for between two and seventeen months. For professionals the mean length of unemployment was 6.3 months and for non-professionals, 6.2 months. Ages ranged from 23 to 49 years ($\underline{M}$ = 34.9) for the professional group and from 25 to 50 years ($\underline{M}$ = 34.3) for the non-professionals.

Data was collected via questionnaires which were given out during July and August, 1990. Subjects were chosen from four agencies, all of which provide career development and/or job finding services. The agencies included: 1) The Alberta Government Career Development Center (CDC), 2) The Association of Professional Engineers, Geologists & Geophysicists of Alberta (APEGGA), 3) Plumbers & Pipefitters Union of Alberta (P&P), and 4) Options for Women. The percentage breakdown of subjects from each agency is shown in Table 3.

Table 2

Sample Breakdown for Last Job (Prior to Unemployment) and for Usual Occupation by Socioeconomic Category

	Last Job				Usual Occupation			
	Prof		NProf		Prof		NProf	
Socioeconomic Category	%	n	%	n	%	n	%	n
Self-employed professionals	--	--	--	--	--	--	--	--
Employed professionals	40	14	2	1	48	12	2	1
High-level management	8	3	2	1	4	1	--	--
Semi-professionals	11	4	6	3	12	3	9	4
Technicians	3	1	4	2	--	--	7	3
Middle management	6	2	11	4	4	1	2	1
Supervisors	6	2	2	1	8	2	--	--
Foremen & women	--	--	--	--	--	--	--	--
Skilled clerical-sales	6	2	9	4	4	1	15	7
Skilled crafts & trade	--	--	13	6	--	--	15	7
Farmers	--	--	--	--	--	--	--	--
Semi-skilled clerical-sales	3	1	22	10	--	--	34	15
Semi-skilled manual	3	1	11	5	--	--	7	3
Unskilled clerical-sales	6	2	9	4	12	3	2	1
Unskilled manual	8	3	9	4	8	2	7	3
Farm Laborers	--	--	--	--	--	--	--	--
Totals	100	35	100	46	100	25	100	45

Note. Prof = Professional and NProf = Non-Professional.

Table 3

Percentage Distribution of Professionals (Prof) and Non-Professionals (NProf) from the Participating Agencies

Group	CDC	APEGGA	P & P	OPTIONS	Total
Professionals	37	43	--	20	100
Non-Professionals	71	--	8	21	100
Total Sample	57	18	5	20	100

Employees at the Career Development Centre and the Plumbers and Pipefitters Union agreed to hand out questionnaires to unemployed individuals as they visited their respective offices. Subjects were asked if they would like to participate in a study on unemployment and were told that it would not be necessary to give their names. Those who were in the 23 to 50 year age range and had been unemployed for two to 18 months were eligible to participate. It was not possible to obtain a figure for the exact number of people who decided not to participate at CDC, however it was reported that the refusal rate was fairly low. Subjects chosen from CDC had the choice of either completing the questionnaire at the Centre or of mailing it from home. On the other hand, unemployed persons approached at the Plumbers and Pipefitters Union, were asked to mail back the questionnaires without the choice of completing it at the Union office. This may account for the fairly low rate of return from the Plumbers and Pipefitters (22.7%) -- of the 10 questionnaires which were returned, 6 were discarded since the criteria for participation were not met.

It was necessary to do a mail out for APEGGA and Options for Women since unemployed individuals do not drop by these offices regularly. Rates of return for APEGGA and Options for Women were, respectively, 36.6% and 53.8%. Of tnese, only one questionnaire was discarded.

It is impossible to obtain a truly representative sample of unemployed individuals since records are kept confidential (Hepworth, 1980; Melville et al., 1985). As well, it has been noted that those who do not seek out help to deal with unemployment are either very optimistic and confident or are too depressed to search for assistance (Hartley, 1980b). Therefore, the subjects in this study, probably represent the mid range (in terms of psychological functioning) of the true population of unemployed professionals and non-professionals.

Measures

Two instruments were used in this study -- a questionnaire which I constructed myself as well as the Beck Depression Inventory (BDI) The first questionnaire included a covering letter explaining the purpose of the study and another section containing several demographic questions (e.g., age, sex, marital status, occupation). Also included were questions designed to tap various mediating factors such as length of unemployment, work commitment, social support and financial status. The majority of the 17 questions were designed according to principles of test construction (Sudman, 1967; Sudman & Bradburn, 1982). Four of the questions had been used in other studies on the psychological impact of unemployment. These questions pertained to: 1) work commitment (Q. #4) (Kanungo, 1982), 2) social support (Q. #7) (Warr &

Jackson, 1985), 3) activity levels (Q. #8) (Little, 1976), and 4) financial status (Q. # 11) (Payne et al., 1984).

Since many of the questions had not been previously used, I asked six people to test them to ensure that they were clear, easily understood and had face validity. As a result of this process many questions were revised until the testers had no further concerns. A copy of this short, self-administered questionnaire can be found in Appendix A.

The second questionnaire, the Beck Depression Inventory (BDI), a brief, self-administered and objectively scored test, measures levels of depression in adults and adolescents (Beck, Ward, Mendelson, Mock & Erbaugh, 1961). This well-validated test consists of 21 multiple choice questions, each question representing one type of depressive symptom (Keyser & Sweetland, 1985). The four possible responses to each question correspond to different levels of depression. The higher the score, the greater the severity of the depressive state (scores can range from 0 to 63). Depending on the score obtained, individuals are placed into one of five categories ranging from normal functioning to severe depression. "Ranges of scores found to be valid in both psychiatric and unselected university populations are 0-9 nondepressed, 10 - 15 mildly, 16 - 23 moderately, and 24+ severely depressed" (Oliver & Pomicter, 1981, p. 509). In terms of

reliability, test-retest is above .90, item analysis correlations are all significant at the .001 level, and internal consistency correlation coefficients are .86 for test items. BDI concurrent validity studies have obtained correlations of .65 to .77. (e.g., correlations of .65 and .67 between BDI scores and clinical ratings of depth of depression) (Beck et al., 1961). In summary, the reliability and validity studies provide evidence in support of the BDI as a useful tool in measuring depression (refer to Appendix B for a copy of the BDI).

CHAPTER IV

RESULTS

Contrary to prediction, there were no significant differences in BDI scores for professionals (M = 9.69, SD = 8.72) and non-professionals (M = 13.58, SD = 10.55), $t(81) = 1.79$, $p = .078$. BDI scores ranged from 0 to 37 for professionals and 0 to 39 for non-professionals. The mean levels of depression were in the non-depressed range for professionals and in the mildly depressed range for non-professionals (see Table 4 for a distribution of BDI scores according to level of depression). It is interesting to note that almost two-thirds (60%) of the professionals were not depressed at all, in comparison with only one-third (35%) of the non-professionals who were in the same category. The average BDI score for the entire sample (professionals and non-professionals combined) was 11.94, which is in the mildly depressed range. This is significantly higher than reported levels of depression for employed samples (e.g., Melville et al. (1985) reported a mean BDI score of 5.6 for a group of employed males). Furthermore, only a small proportion of professionals obtained scores in the severely depressed range (6%) as opposed to a sizable percentage (21%) of similarly affected non-professionals. According to Beck

Table 4

BDI Scores for Professionals (Prof) and Non-Professionals (NProf): Total Sample

		Level of Depression				
		Non-depressed (0-9)	Mild (10-15)	Moderate (16-23)	Severe 24+	Total
Group	n	%	%	%	%	%
Prof	35	60	20	14	6	100
NProf	48	35	35	9	21	100

et al. (1961), BDI scores of 18 or more indicate the presence of clinical depression. Using this guideline, 11% of professionals and 25% of non-professionals in this study would be categorized as clinically depressed.

A significant difference in BDI scores was found for subjects depending on their marital status (see Table 5). Individuals who were divorced or separated had significantly higher BDI scores (M = 19.44) than did those who were married (M = 9.55) or single (M = 11.04), $F(2,80) = 6.60$, $p < .01$. Since a higher percentage of non-professionals than professionals were divorced or separated (31%, and 3%, respectively), and since marital status was shown to have a significant influence on BDI scores, a second comparison of BDI scores for professionals and non-professionals was done; this time, excluding divorced and separated subjects (see Table 6). Similar results were obtained in this second comparison: no significant difference in BDI scores was found between professionals (M = 8.88, SD = 7.42) and non-professionals (M = 11.45, SD = 9.12), $t(65) = 1.27$, $p = .209$.

Several mediating factors were significantly correlated with BDI scores (see Table 7). Higher BDI scores were associated with: 1) fewer adults in the home, 2) higher levels of work commitment, 3) greater dissatisfaction with career choice, 4) less social

Table 5

Analysis of Variance for Differences in BDI Scores for Married, Single, and Divorced/Separated

Source	DF	MS	F	P
Between groups	2	574.949	6.597	.002**
Within groups	80	87.160		
Total	82			

*p< .05 **p< .01

Table 6

BDI Scores for Professionals (Prof) and Non-Professionals (NProf): Excluding Divorced and Separated

		Level of Depression				
		Non-depressed (0-9)	Mild (10-15)	Moderate (16-23)	Severe 24+	Total
Group	n	%	%	%	%	%
Prof	34	62	20	15	3	100
NProf	33	43	36	9	12	100

Table 7

Correlations of Selected Mediating Factors (MF) with BDI Scores

MF	r with BDI Depression
Education	-.131
Adults in home	-.201*
No. of dependents	-.010
Work commitment	-.342**
Satisfaction with last job	.115
Satisfaction with career choice	.382***
Social support	.468***
Extra time	.378***
Financial worries	.461***

*p< .05 **p <.01 ***p <.001

support, 5) more extra time on their hands, and 6) more financial worries.

Mean scores of various mediating factors were compared for professionals and non-professionals (see Table 8). Results indicated that the non-professionals had significantly more time on their hands as well as more financial worries than did the professionals.

Mean BDI scores were calculated for a number of mediating factors (causal attribution for unemployment, sex, and whether or not subjects had been unemployed before). Results in Table 9 indicate that no significant differences were found for any of these variables. Of interest, is that for the majority of subjects (72%), this was not their first bout of unemployment.

Since this study was conducted with individuals from four different agencies (CDC, APEGGA, P & P, and Options), it was important to discern whether or not levels of BDI depression were different for any of these groups. Results in Table 10 indicate that none of the participating agencies were significantly different from others in terms of BDI scores.

Table 8

Summary of t-tests: Differences between Professionals (Prof) and Non-Professionals (NProf) on Selected Mediating Factors (MF)

	Prof		NProf				
MF	M	SD	M	SD	t	DF	P
Age	34.9	7.5	34.3	7.7	.32	81	.078
Months unemployed	6.3	4.3	6.2	4.3	.10	78	.924
Adults in home	2.1	.8	1.9	.7	1.76	81	.083
No. of dependents	.6	.9	.8	.9	-.72	81	.476
Work commitment	18.3	4.8	16.6	5.8	1.41	81	.162
Satisfaction with last job	2.5	1.4	2.6	1.4	-.55	81	.585
Satisfaction with career choice	2.4	1.3	2.7	1.5	-1.18	80	.242
Social support	6.7	1.5	6.6	1.5	.12	81	.905
Extra time	2.3	.9	2.9	.9	-2.52	80	.014 *
Financial worries	2.4	1.0	3.1	1.1	-2.91	80	.005 **

*$p < .05$ **$p < .01$

Table 9

Summary of t-tests: Differences in BDI Scores for Selected Mediating Factors (MF)

	BDI Score					
MF	n	M	SD	t	DF	P
Causal Attribution for Unemployment						
Blames self	29	11.07	9.64	.19	70	.849
Blames others	43	11.53	10.48			
Sex						
Males	45	12.24	10.23	.30	81	.763
Females	38	11.58	9.74			
Unemployed Before						
Yes	59	12.71	9.48	1.18	80	.243
No	23	9.83	11.20			

*$p < .05$

Table 10

Analysis of Variance for Differences in BDI Scores for Subjects from Different Agencies

Source	DF	MS	F	P
Between groups	3	129.776	1.326	.271
Within groups	79	97.891		
Total	82			

*p < .05

CHAPTER V

DISCUSSION

In contrast with the original hypothesis, no significant difference in BDI depression was evidenced between professionals and non-professionals. The results support Payne et al.'s (1984) contention that unemployment homogenizes the experience of two social class groups which are normally very different in terms of psychological well-being. Since those from the lower socioeconomic strata typically exhibit poorer levels of mental health than do higher status individuals, it follows that unemployed professionals would have further to fall (as Elder (1974) stated) in order to experience similar levels of distress. If this were the case, unemployed professionals might require more assistance (e.g., psychological and/or vocational counselling) than unemployed non-professionals since they would have experienced more losses.

Although the results indicated no statistically significant difference in BDI depression between professionals and non-professionals, there was, however, a difference in terms of clinical significance. In contrast with the previous argument, non-professionals might be the ones to warrant special treatment since their mean BDI

scores were in the mildly depressed range as opposed to professionals who were categorized as non-depressed.

The results, which indicate higher than average levels of depression for unemployed persons relative to those who are working, offer support for theories which assert that depression is prevalent among those without work (e.g., Seligman's theory of learned helplessness, Ellis' theory of irrational beliefs, and expectancy-valency theory).

Most past research has also found higher incidences of depression for unemployed individuals than for the general population (e.g., Braithewaite & Garcia, 1985; Feather, 1982; Tiggeman & Winefield, 1984). In Melville's (1985) study of 98 men aged 25 to 50 and unemployed for 3 to 18 months, the mean BDI score was 11.1, which was very close to the BDI average score of 11.9 obtained in the present study. Despite the higher than average level of depression exhibited in this sample, there was nevertheless considerable variation in terms of the severity of reaction to unemployment. This supports Fineman's (1983b) and Little's (1976) findings in which large numbers of the unemployed held positive attitudes towards their unemployment. The subjects in the present study who were in the non-depressed range may have experienced relief at leaving unfavorable jobs, or alternately, they may have had sufficient financial

and social resources to help themselves through this period. Another possible explanation relates to stage theory. If, indeed, unemployed persons do pass through a number of stages during unemployment, the subjects who were not depressed at the time of the study, may have been in one of the other stages (e.g., shock, minimization, acceptance).

Research has often produced inconsistent results as to whether or not various mediating factors actually do influence the psychological impact of unemployment. In this study, several mediating factors (e.g., work commitment, satisfaction with career, social support, extra time, and financial concerns) were found to be associated with BDI depression (see Table 7).

In accordance with the results obtained by Payne et al. (1984), professionals and non-professionals in this study differed significantly from each other in two respects -- non-professionals reported more extra time on their hands as well as more financial concerns. This may help to explain why the average BDI scores for non-professionals were in the mildly depressed range, while the professionals were categorized as non-depressed.

Inconsistent findings abound concerning whether or not marital status actually moderates the psychological impact of unemployment. In the present study, however, marital status was found to significantly affect

depression scores. The average BDI score for individuals who were divorced or separated corresponded to scores obtained by those who are clinically depressed and possibly in need of psychological assistance. Since the majority of the unemployed do not generally seek out this type of assistance, those with higher levels of depressive affect might be expected to have extreme difficulties in coping with the effects of being without work.

In contrast with Kaufman's contention that professionals are the only ones who perceive work to be more important than leisure, there was no significant difference in level of work commitment between professionals and non-professionals in this study (refer to Table 8). A possible explanation for this finding (and one of the limitations in the present research), is that subjects were classified as professional or non-professional according to their levels of education, without consideration of their occupational backgrounds. Table 2 reveals that approximately one-quarter of the professionals had been working in the lowest skill level jobs prior to unemployment, whereas the same percentage of non-professionals had held jobs in the highest socioeconomic categories (i.e., higher prestige and skill-level requirements). As a result, the differentiation between professionals and non-professionals was not as clear-cut as it might

have been. Ideally, professionals should be defined as having equally high levels of education and occupational experiences. Similarly, non-professionals should have correspondingly low levels of education and experience. Unfortunately, due to time constraints, it was not possible to obtain a large enough sample that would have met these criteria. Most studies that have examined social class differences in response to unemployment have erred in a similar manner by failing to differentiate sufficiently between higher and lower class subjects. This may partially explain why results in this area have been so contradictory and inconsistent. Future research should clearly state the educational and occupational backgrounds of subjects (as was done in this study) and should also ensure that the two groups are as distinct as possible from each other.

It was estimated that approximately 50% of unemployed persons who were asked to participate in this study, declined to do so. Those who refused might also be the most severely affected by being without work. In this respect, the levels of depression indicated may underestimate the true population levels. As well, truly representative samples of the unemployed cannot be acquired due to confidentiality restrictions which make it impossible to obtain lists of the unemployed.

If statements were to be made about severe and chronic depression, the BDI scores would have to be supplemented by some type of clinical diagnosis. This was not possible in the present study due to time and financial restrictions.

Frese (1987) raises the issue of the causal relationship between unemployment and depression. Does the unemployment cause individuals to become depressed or do those who are already psychologically vulnerable become unemployed? Several authors (Eisenberg & Lazarsfeld, 1938; Tiggeman & Winefield, 1984; Frese, 1984; Hartley, 1980a) contend that unemployment does in fact cause psychological morbidity. The present study cannot confirm direction of causality, since only longitudinal studies can determine causal effects (Feather, 1982; Tiggeman & Winefield, 1984).

Sudman (1982) states that many individuals underreport psychological ill health. Due to status incongruence and also to the shame and humiliation associated with being unemployed, professionals, in particular, may find it difficult to admit their true feelings regarding their situation. They may therefore overcompensate by dwelling on the positive and avoiding the negative when completing self-report questionnaires such as the BDI. Consequently, results obtained from these types of measures do not necessarily reflect

the true situation. This may have been the case in the present study in which a large proportion of the professionals (62%) were in the non-depressed range for BDI depression.

Individuals whose mental and/or physical health have been adversely affected by unemployment, might have difficulties presenting themselves in the best light during job search. Therefore it is important for unemployed persons who are facing such problems to seek out the appropriate assistance, whether it be a medical doctor, counsellor, job search club, or workshop on resume preparation.

Several strategies can be implemented by those providing assistance to the unemployed. First, it is important that the helping professional understand the dynamics of unemployment and its impact on individuals. For instance, the counsellor should be aware of the multitude of responses to unemployment (e.g., anything from euphoria to suicidal tendencies). Effective clinical skills are necessary in order to assess the psychological condition of the client and to formulate appropriate interventions.

Since many of the jobless experience a lack of control over their lives, methods for regaining control need to be examined. For instance, those who are socially isolated and/or have extra time on their hands could be

directed to self-help groups or encouraged to become involved in activities such as volunteer work. Persons with financial concerns could be referred to the appropriate resources (e.g., social assistance, subsidized housing, food banks, etc.). Those who are unhappy with their career choices could obtain vocational counselling in order to find more suitable work. Unskilled workers could be encouraged to upgrade their skills. These are just a few examples of the practical types of assistance which can be helpful to the unemployed.

Often jobless persons blame themselves for their unemployment even when it is not their fault (e.g., plant shutdowns). Since self-blame can lead to negative emotional states such as depression, the counsellor could put things into perspective by pointing out some of the economic, social and political forces over which the unemployed person does not have control.

Shamir (1986a) states that unemployment research has shifted away from looking at the general effects of unemployment and has turned to examining the moderators of these effects. Since the results of these studies have often been contradictory, future research should continue to investigate these variables. In particular, more research on social class differences in response to unemployment needs to be conducted. Ideally, the samples would be fairly large and there would be a clear

distinction between socioeconomic classes. Since a significant number of subjects in the present study had been unemployed before (72%), future research might explore whether or not there are differences between those who have only been unemployed once versus those who have had several incidences of joblessness. Future studies should also explore the effects of marital status on the unemployed, particularly in light of the significantly higher depression scores for divorced and separated persons which were found in the present study. Since most studies of the psychological impact of unemployment have been cross-sectional and quantitative in nature, additional longitudinal and qualitative studies are required in order to better understand the consequences of unemployment for individuals. Longitudinal and qualitative research would also be helpful in evaluating the validity of stage accounts for explaining the psychological effects of joblessness.

Lastly, Jahoda (1981) states that due to technological advances, there may be a significant increase in structural unemployment in the future. In order to deal with this potential problem, a more solid historical foundation is required (since much of the current literature is fragmented, with many inconsistent findings). Collaboration with professionals from other fields would also be helpful.

In conclusion, this study has attempted to link hypotheses with theoretical and empirical findings. It has also attempted to increase understanding of the often devastating psychological impact of unemployment which affects so many lives.

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APPENDIX A

Questionnaire #1

Dear Respondent:

This is a study on the psychological impact of unemployment. It is being conducted through the Department of Educational Psychology at the University of Alberta under the supervision of Dr. W. Hague. Your participation in this research would be appreciated. Would you please fill out the following two short questionnaires pertaining to the effects of unemployment? The first questionnaire consists of some general questions, while the second asks more specific questions regarding your feelings.

Despite much publicity given to the problem of unemployment, attention has seldom been directed toward the psychological impact of unemployment. To a large extent the general public and even those in the helping professions still do not understand the consequences of unemployment for individuals. For this reason, it is important to obtain your reaction to being unemployed. Your participation in this study will help to expand scientific knowledge on this topic and can be used to increase awareness of the effects of unemployment. A copy

of the results of this study will by available at the Career Development Center in November, 1990.

It is not necessary for you to give your name. This will respect your right to privacy. This anonymity will ensure that any information given will remain confidential. An identification number is being used for tabulation purposes; it will not compromise your anonymity.

Thank you for your cooperation. If you have any questions, please call Linda Roy at 432-1191.

UNEMPLOYMENT QUESTIONNAIRE

DEPARTMENT OF EDUCATIONAL PSYCHOLOGY

UNIVERSITY OF ALBERTA

When answering questions, please remember that honesty and accuracy are the prime requirements. It is also important to answer all questions. Thank you.

1. What kind of work did you do on your last regular job?
   a) What was your main occupation called?
      Occupation:_____
   b) Describe what you actually did in that job. What were some of your main duties?

IF WORKED TWO OR MORE KINDS OF WORK:

2. What kind of work have you done longer than any other?
   a) What was your main occupation called?
      Occupation:_____
   b) Describe what you actually did in that job. What were some of your main duties?

3. a) Including yourself, how many people are currently living in your household?
   b) Please indicate the age of each of these people, and their relationship to you.

4. Listed below are some statements about how you feel about work. **CIRCLE ONE** answer code number for each statement. (SA = Strongly agree, A = Agree, NS = Not sure, D = Disagree, and SD = Strongly Disagree).

	SA	A	NS	D	SD
a. The most important things that happen to me involve my work.	1	2	3	4	5
b. Work is something that should involve most of one's time.	1	2	3	4	5
c. Work should be only a small part of one's life.	1	2	3	4	5
d. Work should be considered central to life.	1	2	3	4	5
e. In my view, an individual's personal life goals should be work-oriented.	1	2	3	4	5
f. Life is worth living only when people get absorbed in work.	1	2	3	4	5

5. In general, how did you feel about your last job?

Very satisfied.....1

Somewhat satisfied.....2

Indifferent.....3

Somewhat dissatisfied.....4

Very Dissatisfied.....5

6. How do you feel about you career choice in general?

Very satisfied.....1

Somewhat satisfied.....2

Indifferent.....3

Somewhat dissatisfied.....4

Very dissatisfied.....5

7. Do you have someone:	Yes	No
a) to turn to for financial assistance?.....	1	2
b) to talk with about day-today problems?.....	1	2
c) to suggest interesting things to do?.....	1	2
d) to turn to for cheering up when feeling low?..	1	2
e) to provide information about jobs and benefits.....	1	2

8. Have you found that you have had a lot of 'extra' time since you became unemployed?

   No; Busier than while employed; Don't have enough time.....1

   No; Haven't had a lot of extra time; Manage to keep busy.....2

   Yes; Extra time is a real problem; Try to keep busy..3

   Yes; Extra time is a real problem; Can't find enough to do, driving me nuts; Have lots of extra time.....4

9. Have you ever been unemployed before? ("unemployed" refers to being without a job during a time when you would prefer to work).

   Yes; I have been unemployed before.....1

   No; This is the first time I have been unemployed....2

10. Whom do you blame for your unemployment?

    Self.....1

    Economy.....2

    Company you last worked for.....3

    Government.....4

    Other (specify).....5

    Other _____

11. Thinking back over the past 30 days, how often have you had serious financial worries?

Never.....1

Hardly ever.....2

Frequently.....3

Nearly all the time.....4

All the time.....5

12. What is your sex?

Male.....1

Female.....2

13. a) Age at last birthday? _____

b) What is your date of birth? _____ _____ _____

Month Day Year

14. Are you now:

Married (including common-law marriage).....1

Widowed.....2

Divorced.....3

Separated.....4

Never married (including annulments).....5

15. What is the highest level of formal education you obtained?

Less than high school.....1

High school diploma (or equivalency).....2

Trade or technical school graduate.....3

College diploma.....4

University degree.....5

Other (specify).....6

Other_____

16. When did you last work for pay at a regular job or business, either full-time or part-time?

____ ____

Month and Year of last work.

17. What is the reason you became unemployed?

Quit.....1

Laid off.....2

Fired.....3

Health reasons.....4

Completed school and entering the job market.....5

Other (specify).....6

Other_____

APPENDIX B

Questionnaire #2

Beck Depression Inventory

This is the second questionnaire. On the questionnaire are groups of statements. Please read each complete group of statements and then **CIRCLE** the code number in that group which best describes the way you feel today, that is, right now. If several statements in the group seem to apply equally well, **CIRCLE EACH ONE.** Be sure to read all the statements in each group before making your choice.

1. 0 I do not feel sad.
   1 I feel blue or sad.
   2a I am so blue or sad all the time and I can't snap out of it.
   2b I am so sad or unhappy that it is quite painful.
   3 I am so sad or unhappy that I can't stand it.

2. 0 I am not particularly pessimistic or discouraged about the future.
   1 I feel discouraged about the future.
   2a I feel I have nothing to look forward to.
   2b I feel that I won't ever get over my troubles.
   3 I feel that the future is hopeless and that things cannot improve.

3. 0 I do not feel like a failure.

1 I feel I have failed more than the average person.

2a I feel I have accomplished very little that is worthwhile or that means anything.

2b As I look back on my life all I can see is a lot of failure.

3 I feel I am a complete failure as a person (parent, husband, wife)

4. 0 I am not particularly dissatisfied.

1a I feel bored most of the time.

1b I don't enjoy things the way I used to.

2 I don't get satisfaction out of anything any more.

3 I am dissatisfied with everything.

5. 0 I don't feel particularly guilty.

1 I feel bad or unworthy a good part of the time.

2a I feel quite guilty.

2b I feel bad or unworthy practically all the time now.

3 I feel as though I am very bad or worthless.

6. 0 I don't feel I am being punished.

1 I have a feeling that something bad may happen to me.

2 I feel I am being punished or will be punished.

3a I feel I deserve to be punished.

3b I want to be punished.

7. 0 I don't feel disappointed in myself.

1a I am disappointed in myself.

1b I don't like myself.

2 I am disgusted with myself.

3 I hate myself.

8. 0 I don't feel I am any worse than anybody else.

1 I am critical of myself for my weaknesses or mistakes.

2 I blame myself for my faults.

3 I blame myself for everything bad that happens.

9. 0 I don't have any thoughts of harming myself.
   1 I have thoughts of harming myself but I would not carry them out.
   2a I feel I would be better off dead.
   2b I feel my family would be better off if I were dead.
   3a I have definite plans about killing myself.
   3b I would commit suicide if I could.

10. 0 I don't cry any more than usual.
   1 I cry more now than I used to.
   2 I cry all the time. I can't stop.
   3 I used to be able to cry but now I can't cry at all.

11. 0 I am no more irritated now than I ever am.
   1 I get annoyed or irritated more than I used to.
   2 I feel irritated all the time.
   3 I don't get irritated at all at the things that used to irritate me.

12. 0 I have not lost interest in other people.
   1 I am less interested in other people now than I used to be.
   2 I have lost most of my interest in other people.
   3 I have lost all my interest in other people.

13. 0 I make decisions about as well as ever.
    1 I try to put off making decisions.
    2 I have great difficulty in making decisions.
    3 I can't make any decisions at all any more.

14. 0 I don't feel I look any worse than I used to.
    1 I am worried that I am looking old or unattractive.
    2 I feel that I am unattractive.
    3 I feel that I am ugly or repulsive looking.

15. 0 I can work about as well as before.
    1a It takes extra effort to get started at doing anything.
    1b I don't work as well as I used to.
    2 I have to push myself very hard to do anything.
    3 I can't do any work at all.

16. 0 I can sleep as well as usual.
    1 I wake up more tired in the morning than I use to.
    2 I wake up 1-2 hours earlier than usual and can't get back to sleep.
    3 I wake up early every day and can't get more than 5 hours sleep.

17. 0 I don't get any more tired than usual.
1 I get tired more easily than I used to.
2 I get tired from doing anything.
3 I get too tired to do anything.

18. 0 My appetite is no worse than usual.
1 My appetite is not as good as it used to be.
2 My appetite is much worse now.
3 I have no appetite at all any more.

19. 0 I haven't lost much weight, if any, lately.
1 I have lost more than 5 pounds.
2 I have lost more than 10 pounds.
3 I have lost more than 15 pounds.

20. 0 I am no more concerned about my health than usual.
1 I am concerned about aches and pains, upset stomach or constipation.
2 I am so concerned about how I feel that it is hard to think of much else.
3 I am completely absorbed in what I feel.

21. 0 I have not noticed any recent change in my interest in sex.

1 I am less interested in sex than I used to be.

2 I am much less interested in sex now.

3 I have lost interest in sex completely.